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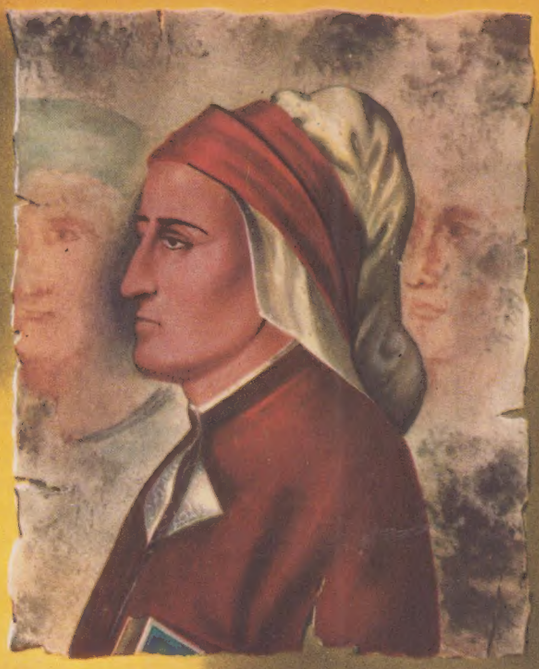

A. Fectin

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Q QUOTATIONS (part one)

WE can all express ourselves. But sometimes somebody says something so well, so neatly, or so wittily that we occasionally use his words rather than our own. At other times we quite unconsciously borrow somebody's words – we may use phrases like 'time is money', without knowing their author. Here are a few of the world's most famous remarks, observations, and verses.

Acton, Sir J. E. E. Dalberg, 1st baron (1834–1902)
Power tends to corrupt and absolute power corrupts absolutely. Letter in *Life of Mandell Creighton.*

Archimedes (287–212 B C)
Eureka! (I have found!) Vitruvius Pollio, *De Architectura.*

Aristotle (384–322 B C)
Man is by nature a political animal. *Politics*, i.

Arnold, Matthew (1822–1888)
All the live murmur of a summer's day. *The Scholar-Gipsy.*
This strange disease of modern life. *Ibidem (the same).*

Bacon, Francis (1561–1626)
The remedy is worse than the disease.
Essays of Seditions and Troubles.
He is the fountain of honour. *Essay on a King.*

Belloc, Hilaire (1870–1953)
The chief defect of Henry King
Was chewing little bits of string.
Cautionary Tales. Henry King.
Remote and ineffectual Don
That dared attack my Chesterton. *Lines to a Don.*
When I am dead, I hope it may be said:
'His sins were scarlet, but his books were read.'
Epigrams. On his Books.

Bentham, Jeremy (1748–1832)
The greatest happiness of the greatest number is the foundation of morals and legislation.
The Commonplace Book.

The Holy Bible
And God said, Let there be light: and there was light. *Genesis* i. 3.
And God saw that it was good. *Ib.* 10.
Male and female created he them. *Ib.* 27.
The serpent beguiled me, and I did eat. *Ib.* iii. 13.
Life for life, eye for eye, tooth for tooth, hand for hand, foot for foot. *Exodus* xxi. 23.
A stiffnecked people. *Ib.* xxxiii. 3.
Be sure your sin will find you out. *Numbers* xxxii. 23.
Man doth not live by bread only, but by every word that proceedeth out of the mouth of the Lord doth man live. *Deuteronomy* viii. 3.
How are the mighty fallen, and the weapons of war perished! 2 *Samuel* i. 27.
Would God I had died for thee, O Absalom, my son, my son! *Ib.* xviii. 33.
My father hath chastised you with whips, but I will chastise you with scorpions. 1 *Kings* xii. 11.
Go to the ant, thou sluggard; consider her ways, and be wise. *Proverbs* vi. 6.
Stolen waters are sweet, and bread eaten in secret is pleasant. *Ib.* ix. 17.
A soft answer turneth away wrath. *Ib.* xv. 1.
Heap coals of fire upon his head. *Ib.* xxv. 22.
Vanity of vanities, saith the Preacher, vanity of vanities; all is vanity. *Ecclesiastes* i. 2.
Cast thy bread upon the waters: for thou shalt find it after many days. *Ib.* xi. 1.
They have sown the wind, and they shall reap the whirlwind. *Hosea* viii. 7.
The voice of one crying in the wilderness, Prepare ye the way of the Lord, make his paths straight. *St Matthew* iii. 3.
This is my beloved Son, in whom I am well pleased. *Ib.* 17.
Blessed are the meek: for they shall inherit the earth. *Ib.* v. 5.
Ye are the salt of the earth: but if the salt have lost his savour, wherewith shall it be salted? *Ib.* 13.
Let your light so shine before men, that they may see your good works. *Ib.* 16.
Lay up for yourselves treasures in heaven. *Ib.* vi. 20.
Judge not, that ye be not judged. *Ib.* vii. 1.
Neither cast ye your pearls before swine. *Ib.* 6.
Get thee behind me, Satan. *Ib.* xvi. 23.
Render therefore unto Caesar the things which are Caesar's. *Ib.* xxii. 21.
The spirit indeed is willing, but the flesh is weak. *Ib.* xxvi. 41.
It were better for him that a millstone were hanged about his neck, and he cast into the sea. *St Luke* xvii. 2.
The wages of sin is death. *The Epistle of Paul to the Romans* vi. 23.
If God be for us, who can be against us? *Ib.* viii. 31.
Vengeance is mine; I will repay, saith the Lord. *Ib.* xii. 19.
Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels, and have not charity, I am become as sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal. *First Epistle of Paul to the Corinthians* xiii. 1.
When I was a child, I spake as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child: but when I became a man, I put away childish things. *Ib.* 11.
Honour all men. Love the brotherhood. Fear God. Honour the king. *The First Epistle General of Peter* ii. 17.

Bismarck, Otto von (1815–1898)
The great questions of our day cannot be solved by speeches and majority votes . . . but by blood and iron. *Speech, Prussian House of Deputies, Sept.* 1862.
We will not go to Canossa. *Ib., Reichstag, 14th May* 1872.
An honest broker. *Ib., 19th Feb.* 1878.

Blake, William (1757–1827)
In England's green and pleasant land. *Milton, preface.*
Tiger! Tiger! burning bright
In the forests of the night,
What immortal hand or eye
Could frame thy fearful symmetry?
Songs of Experience. The Tiger.
Little Lamb, who made thee?
Dost thou know who made thee?
Gave thee life, and bid thee feed,
By the stream and o'er the mead.
Songs of Innocence. The Lamb.

Bosquet, Marechal (1810–1861)
C'est magnifique, mais ce n'est pas la guerre.
(It is magnificent, but it is not war.)
Remark on the Charge of the Light Brigade, 1854.

Braisted, Harry (19th century)
You're Not the Only Pebble on the Beach. *Song title.*

Bright, John (1811–1889)
England is the mother of Parliaments.
Speech, Birmingham, 18th Jan. 1865.

Brooke, Rupert (1887–1915)
Stands the Church clock at ten to three?
And is there honey still for tea?
The Old Vicarage, Grantchester.
If I should die, think only this of me:
That there's some corner of a foreign field
That is for ever England. *The Soldier.*

Brown, Thomas (1663–1704)
I do not love you, Dr Fell,
But why I cannot tell;
But this I know full well,
I do not love you, Dr Fell.
(trans. of *Martial, Epigrams*, i. 32) *Works* (1719), vol. iv.

Browne, Sir Thomas (1605–1682)
Charity begins at home, is the voice of the world. *Religio Medici.*

Browning, Robert (1812–1889)
Just for a handful of silver he left us,
Just for a riband to stick in his coat. *The Lost Leader.*
It was roses, roses, all the way. *The Patriot.*
God's in his heaven –
All's right with the world! *Pippa Passes.*

Bunyan, John (1628–1688)
So he passed over, and all the trumpets sounded for him on the other side. [*Mr Standfast*] *Pilgrim's Progress.*

Burke, Edmund (1729–1797)
An event has happened, upon which it is difficult to speak, and impossible to be silent.
Impeachment of Warren Hastings.

Burns, Robert (1759–1796)

Should auld acquaintance be forgot,
And never brought to mind? *Auld Lang Syne.*
We'll tak a cup o' kindness yet,
For auld lang syne. *Ib.*
O, my Luve's like a red red rose
That's newly sprung in June:
O my Luve's like the melodie
That's sweetly play'd in tune.
My Love is like a Red Red Rose.
A man's a man for a' that. *For a' that and a' that.*

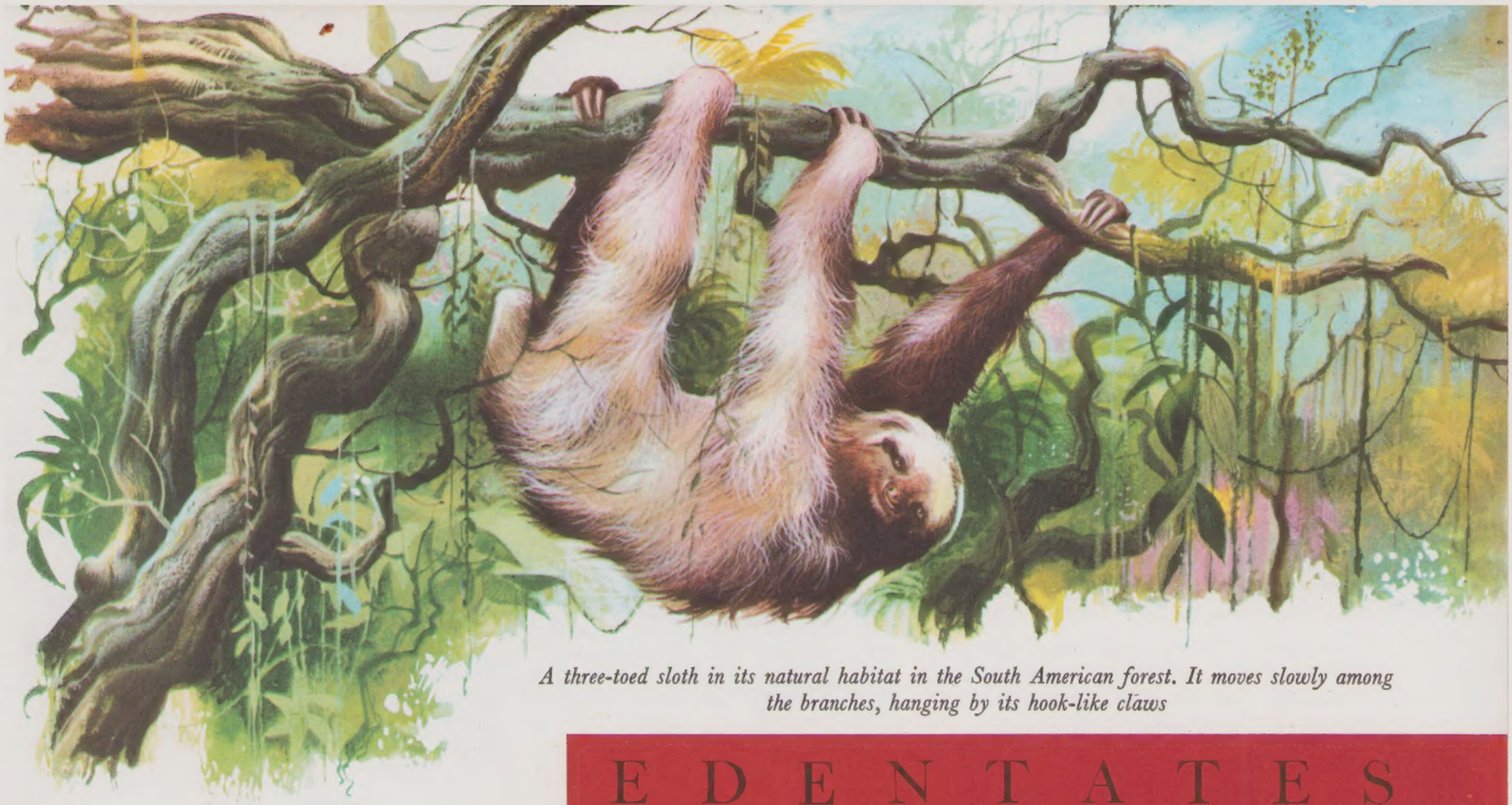
Butler, Samuel (1835–1902)
The history of art is the history of revivals.
Elementary Morality. Handel and Music. Anachronism.

Byron, Lord, George Gordon Byron (1788–1824)
The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold,
And his cohorts were gleaming in purple and gold;
And the sheen of their spears was like stars on the sea,
When the blue wave rolls nightly on deep Galilee.
Destruction of Sennacherib.
The isles of Greece, the isles of Greece!
Where burning Sappho loved and sung,
Where grew the arts of war and peace,
Where Delos rose, and Phoebus sprung! *Don Juan*, c. III.

Canning, George (1770–1827)

Pitt is to Addington
As London is to Paddington. *The Oracle.*
I called the New World into existence, to redress the balance of the Old. *Speech, 12th Dec.* 1826.

Previous page: Three much-quoted authors whose works are the finest monuments of their nation's language: (top) bust of Homer of Greece; (right) Dante of Italy; (left) Shakespeare of England.



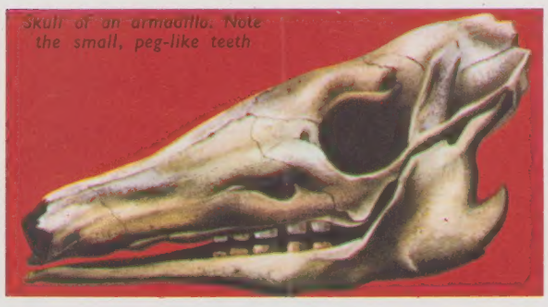
A three-toed sloth in its natural habitat in the South American forest. It moves slowly among the branches, hanging by its hook-like claws

EDENTATES

SCIENTIFIC names are not always apt and logical, and the Order of mammals called Edentata seems very ill-named. 'Edentate' means 'without teeth'; while a few members of the Order are, indeed, toothless, most of them do have teeth, and one species has more than any other mammal, except for some kinds of whale.

Less than 30 species of edentate are known, and they fall into three very distinct groups – anteaters, sloths, and armadillos. It is difficult to point to characteristics which they all possess in common, to justify their being classified together, but numerous fossil species are known which provide links between the three existing types. The teeth of sloths and armadillos (anteaters are toothless) are peculiar in having no enamel or roots, and continue to grow as they are worn down. The feet of edentates always bear large, powerful claws, the third finger being usually the most strongly developed. The ground-living forms walk on the soles or sides of their feet; the sloths hang from the branches of trees by their hook-shaped claws.

One of the most constant features of mammals is that they have seven cervical or neck vertebrae. This is equally true of men, mice, giraffes, and even whales. But of the three species of sloth, one has the typical number of cervical vertebrae; the second, six; and the third, nine.



Skull of an armadillo. Note the small, peg-like teeth

The fore-foot of an edentate; it is armed with very large, strong claws

CLASSIFICATION

The living species of edentates are divided into three very distinct families.

Anteaters (*Myrmecophagidae*). Three species are known. The largest is a ground-living animal and the other two climb among trees. They feed on ants and termites.

Sloths (*Bradypodidae*). Three species, all living entirely among trees, hanging upside-down by their hooked claws. They feed on leaves and fruits.

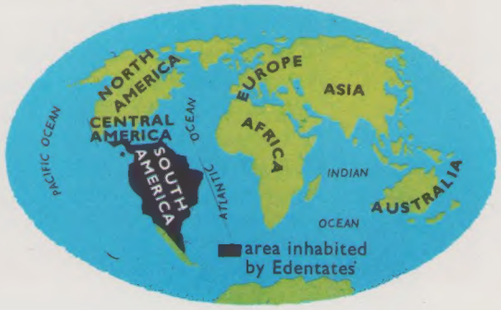
Armadillos (*Dasypodidae*). About 20 species. They are the only mammals which have bone developed in the skin, and this forms an armour of bony plates. They feed mainly on worms, snails, and insects.

Armadillo's plates: ① fixed plates; ② movable plates near centre of body

Where they live

The edentates are almost entirely confined to South and Central America; only one species, the nine-banded armadillo, extends into the southern states of the United States. All three types – sloths, anteaters, and armadillos – are found from southern Mexico to Argentina. Sloths and tree anteaters inhabit only forest; the others, open country also.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE EDENTATES



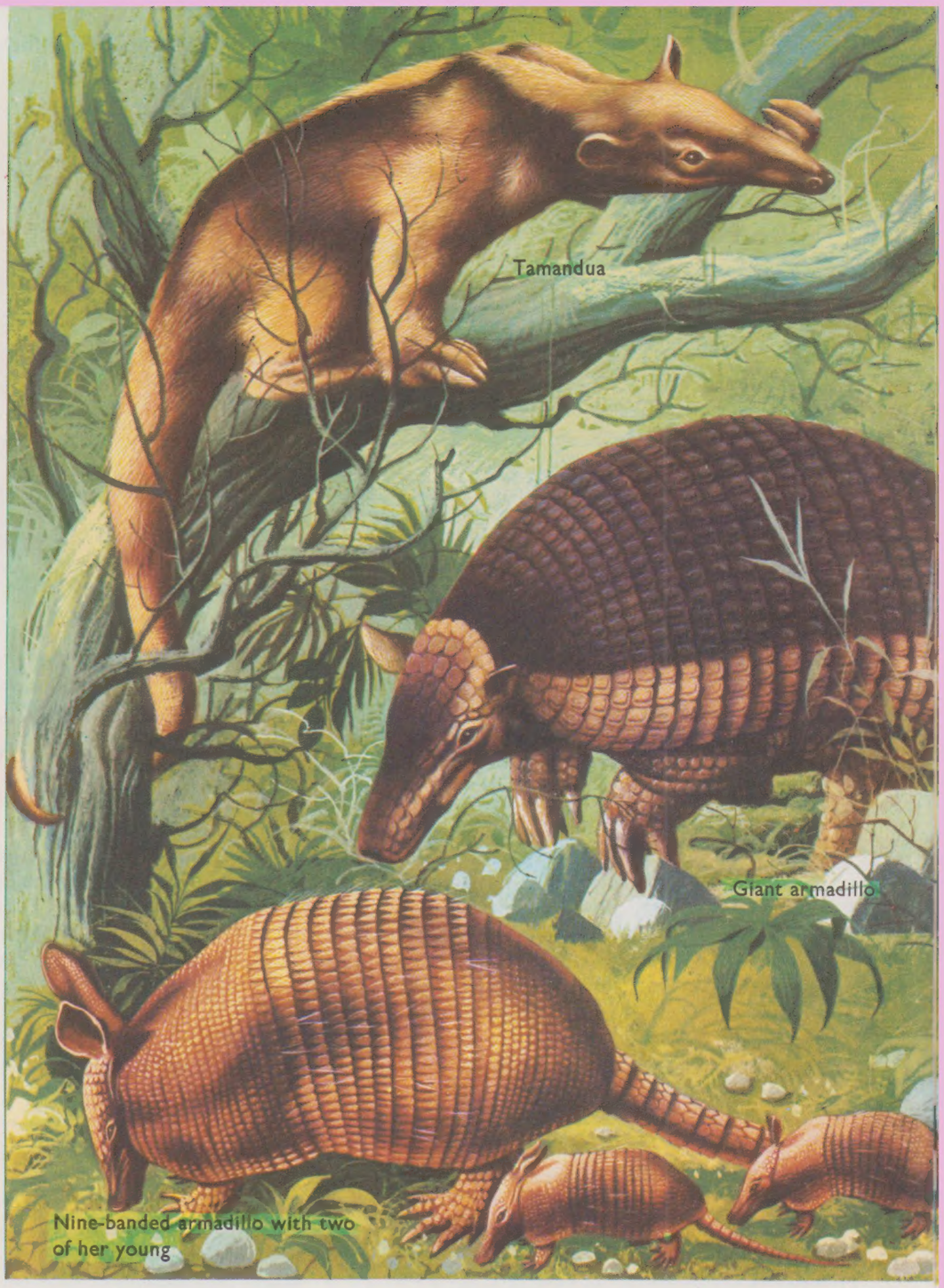
ANTEATERS AND SLOTHS

Great anteater (*Myrmecophaga jubata*). This is the largest of the edentates, and grows to a length of well over 6 feet, including its bushy tail. Its fore-legs are very powerful and are armed with enormous claws, used for digging and tearing open the nests of ants and termites. They also serve as formidable weapons, and it is said that even a jaguar will not attack a fully grown anteater. When it feeds, the animal pokes its long muzzle into the ants' nest, puts out its foot-long, sticky, worm-like tongue and licks up the ants. It licks up a lot of earth as well, but this seems to aid its digestion. The young are born singly, and the baby rides on its mother's back for several months after birth. The great anteater is found, both in forest and more open country, in Central America and tropical South America.

Tamandua or **lesser anteater** (*Tamandua tetradactyla*). This animal is much smaller (3 to 4 feet long) than the great anteater and has shorter fur. Its tail, instead of being bushy, is long and prehensile – that is, it can be curled round a branch and used as a fifth limb for climbing. Tamanduas do come down to the ground, but they spend most of their time climbing about among the trees. They feed by tearing open the homes of ants and termites that nest among the branches.

Three-toed sloth or **ai** (*Bradypus tridactylus*). Three-fingered sloth would be a better name for this animal, as its name refers to the digits of its fore-limbs. All the fingers and toes of each limb are enclosed in a sheath of skin, so that the claws appear to be growing out of the feet. The ai is about 20 inches long including its stump of a tail. Only one minute baby (about the size of a man's thumb) is born at a time. The mother carries her baby about for some weeks after birth. A curious feature of all the sloths is that the hairs of their fur are covered with little pits, in which a peculiar type of microscopic plant or alga grows; if the animal is heavily infested with these algae its fur looks green. The ai has another strange parasite – a small moth which lives and breeds in its fur. The ai feeds on the flowers and fruit of one particular kind of tree, called the Cecropia.

Two-toed sloth or **unau** (*Choloepus didactylus*). The unau's 'toes' are again really fingers. It is a little larger and more active than the ai. Its teeth are also different from those of the ai, which are all small; the front pair in each of the unau's jaws are longer than the rest and very sharp, resembling canine teeth. The unau is less restricted in its diet, and in captivity will eat fruit and vegetables. This species is confined to Brazil, but a similar sloth, *Choloepus hoffmanni*, is found from Ecuador to Costa Rica.



A group of edentates comprising a sloth, two anteaters, and four kinds

ARMADILLOS

Nine-banded armadillo (*Dasypus novemcinctus*). This armadillo is about 3 feet long, including its tail. Its fore- and hind-quarters are covered by shields, formed of little plates of bone lying close together, and the middle part of its body is protected by 9 hinged bands of similar bony plates. Most armadillos have armour built on this plan, which gives the body some degree of flexibility. Nine-banded armadillos live in burrows in dry or semi-desert country, and come out mostly at night. This is the only species that extends northwards into the United States, and it is sometimes called the Texas armadillo. The female nearly always has four young at a time, and these are always of the same sex; they are, in fact, 'identical quadruplets', bearing the same relation to each other as human identical twins do. Their shells are soft at first, and do not harden until they are nearly a year old.

Giant armadillo (*Priodontes gigas*). This is the largest of all the armadillos, measuring between 4 and 5 feet long, including its tail, and weighing 120 pounds or more. In spite of their size, giant armadillos are quite active, and can walk on their hind feet and even stand upright. They have five

Two-toed sloth or unau
Great anteater
Note: these edentates are not drawn to the same scale
Three-banded armadillo
Fairy armadillo

of armadillo. For convenience they are all shown inhabiting the same landscape

flexible bands round the middle of their bodies, and curl up into a ring when sleeping or resting. They have more teeth than any other land mammal – 25 in each upper jaw and 22 to 24 in each lower jaw, making nearly 100 in all. These teeth are small and weak, however, and suited only to the animal's usual diet of insects. The giant armadillo is found in Brazil in the forests of the Amazon basin.

Fairy armadillo (*Chlamydophorus truncatus*). This is by far the smallest of all the edentates, being only 6 inches long. Its armour consists of about 20 pinkish-coloured transverse bands, and its face and underparts are covered with light-coloured hair. The hind end looks as if it had been cut off square, giving the little animal a very strange appearance. Fairy armadillos feed on insects, for which they burrow, rather like moles. They are found in the drier parts of Bolivia and western Argentina.

Three-banded armadillo or **apara** (*Tolypeutes mataca*). This is a small species, about the size of a rabbit, and has three flexible bands of armour plates. This and two other species of the genus *Tolypeutes* are the only armadillos that can curl up into a ball so that the soft parts of their bodies are completely protected; the picture above shows one curled up in this way. Aparas dig in search of their insect food, but do not live in burrows, and they run actively on the tips of their claws. They are found in the open pampas country of Argentina.

EDENTATES OF THE PAST

None of the animals we have described is of any great size, but in the fairly recent past there were enormous edentates in South America. The megatherium or giant ground sloth (see page 2131) was as big as an elephant. Some kinds of large ground sloths were alive when primitive man first came to the country.

HAMMURABI

Hammurabi receiving his laws from the god Shamash (detail from the stele on which they were written)

ONE of the earliest civilisations began in Mesopotamia, the traditional site of the Garden of Eden (see page 2241). This 'land between the rivers' was so fertile that it attracted settlers far back in antiquity. It was almost certainly over 5,000 years ago that the Sumerians arrived. These people were white-skinned, shaved their heads, and wore shaggy woollen kilts. They came probably from the east, perhaps from the heart of central Asia.

The Sumerians settled in the lower part of the great plain of the Tigris and the Euphrates. They cultivated the land, grew wheat and barley, kept domestic animals, built dykes and ditches, and little temples to their gods.

The principal Mesopotamian cities in the days of Hammurabi

THE ARRIVAL OF THE SEMITES IN MESOPOTAMIA

Many thousands of years ago a race of people came to the plain of the rivers Tigris and Euphrates and settled to the north of the Sumerians. They were Semites, who came probably from the Mediterranean coast to the west. They were dark-skinned, wore their black hair long, and the men grew beards. Their part of the country was known as Akkad, and there were numerous conflicts between the Sumerians in the south and the Semites in the north.

These peoples gradually developed from dwellers in collections of primitive mud huts into 'citizens', and several cities grew up, each of which had a temple, a palace, and a priest-king. It was in these cities that the great Mesopotamian civilisation was born. Manufactured goods were bought and sold, traders travelled far afield, systems of law and authority were evolved, and a form of writing invented.

Hammurabi, seated on his throne, metes out justice in his Babylonian

Over the centuries first one and then another city would rise and fall in importance. The greatest of them were Erech, Lagash, Isin, Larsa, and Ur in Sumeria; and Kish and Agade in Akkad. While these cities were having their moments of glory, another tribe came in from the desert and settled. They were the Amorites, a branch of the Semites, and they were the ancestors of one of the most illustrious kings of antiquity, King Hammurabi.

It was probably about 2220 B C that Hammurabi's ancestors established themselves in the insignificant village of Babylon, on the river Euphrates. Gradually Babylon grew in size and importance until it was the greatest city in the northern part of the plain. It was Hammurabi who made it the capital of both Sumer and Akkad, and so brought the great Babylonian empire, and the word 'Babylonia', into history.

Hammurabi, the sixth king of his dynasty, came to the throne probably in

2067 B C. He inherited a war with the powerful King of Larsa, Rim-Sin, and it was not until the thirtieth year of his reign that he defeated Larsa and captured Rim-Sin. From then on he was acknowledged as King of Babylonia. Hammurabi was a great warrior. He controlled the fierce Elamites and confined them to their mountains in the east, and also raided the Assyrian country in the north of Mesopotamia. But his name rests more on his achievements as a man of peace than as a man of war.

Hammurabi was a deeply religious man and built many gorgeous temples. He gained the support of the priests and gave money for religious purposes to Kish, Larsa, Lagash, Ur, Erech, and, in the far north, Nineveh, as well as to Babylon. In addition, he raised Babylon's local god, Marduk, to the most honoured place among the empire's gods, and so safeguarded Babylon's primary position in ancient Mesopotamia.

Hammurabi also kept a close watch on the royal finances, food supplies to Babylon from the provinces, clothing for slaves, shipping, and the general welfare of the workers.

But it is for none of these things that Hammurabi's name is mainly remembered today. Instead, it is for something which was found during momentous excavations at Susa in 1901 and 1902. This was his Code of Laws, found written on an upright slab (or *stele*) made of black basalt, measuring 7 feet 4 inches high by 2 feet in diameter. It was found in three pieces which were fitted together, and is today in the Louvre Museum in Paris.

capital. His code of laws is a remarkable survival from the ancient world

It is said that this stele was set up by Hammurabi at Marduk's temple in Babylon so that all might consult it. There it remained for at least a thousand years until it was removed by the King of Elam. Then it must have become buried during some siege or conquest, until French archaeologists rediscovered it at the beginning of this century.

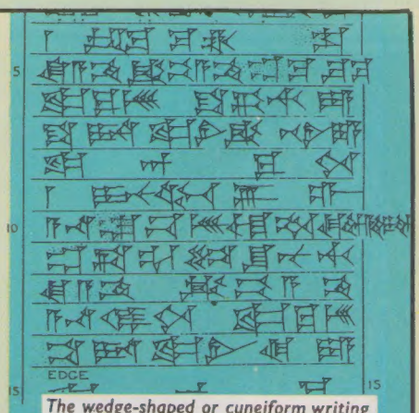
The reverse of the stele of laws

On the front of the stele is a picture of Hammurabi receiving the laws from Shamash, god of justice in heaven and earth. Below this are 16 columns of writing – five less than there were originally. These were probably scraped off by the King of Elam where he intended to inscribe his own laws. On the back of the stele are a further 28 columns of writing. The laws are not given in any sort of order and were codified rather than invented by Hammurabi. There are no fewer than 282 of them. The first concerns a man who has 'laid a curse' upon another. The last decrees that if a slave says to his master, 'I am not your slave', he shall have his ear cut off. In between are laws dealing with divorce, trade, medical practice, and violence. For example: 'If a man has knocked out the teeth of a man of equal rank, his own teeth shall be knocked out.' Miscellaneous laws include: 'If a mad bull meet a man in the highway and gore him, that case has no remedy.'

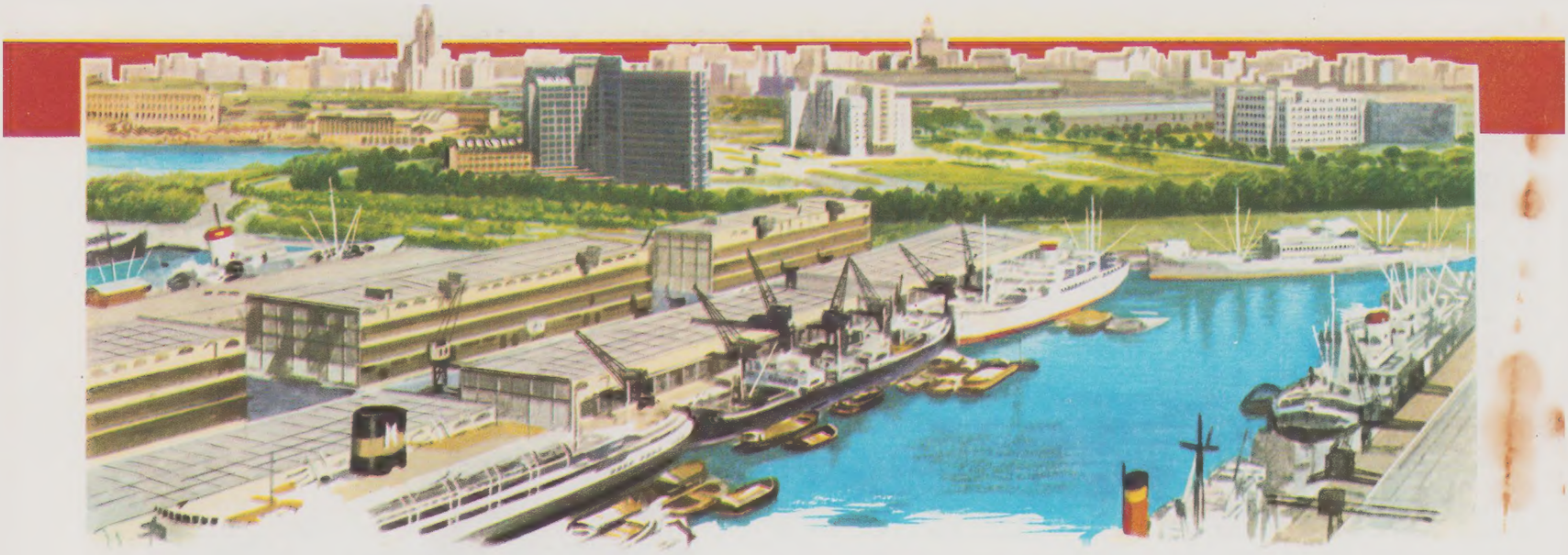
Hammurabi died after a reign of 43 years. He united Babylonia and extended his rule into the central provinces of the Tigris and Euphrates. His achievement made Babylon the centre of political and intellectual thought in western Asia, right down until the Christian era.

Letters from Hammurabi to Sin-Idinnam

Hammurabi was interested in every facet of Babylonian life. By wonderful chance, many of his letters (written on small tablets of baked clay) have been discovered intact during recent excavations and are now in the major museums of Europe. Several of these deal with canals – for example: 'Unto Sin-Idinnam [possibly the governor of Larsa] say: "Thus saith Hammurabi: thou shalt call out the men who hold land along the banks of the Damanum Canal that they may clear it out. Within the present month shall they complete the work of clearing out the Damanum Canal."' Hammurabi dug the enormous canal called 'Hammurabi, the abundance of the people', boasting: 'I dug a canal which bringeth copious water to the lands of Sumer and Akkad. Its banks on both sides I turned into meadow, I heaped up piles of grain, I provided unfailing water for the lands of Sumer and Akkad. I gathered the scattered people of Sumer and Akkad; with pasturage and watering I provided them. I pastured them with plenty and abundance and settled them in peaceful dwellings.'



The wedge-shaped or cuneiform writing used in the age of Hammurabi



Skyscrapers, docks, and open gardens of Buenos Aires – the largest city south of the Equator

BUENOS AIRES is a magnificent city. It is the imposing capital of the Argentine (see page 1070), one of the richest countries in South America.

Few countries of the world are dominated in every way by one city, as Argentina is by Buenos Aires. It is the centre of government, and hence the seat of the President of the Argentine Republic. It is also the economic heart of the nation. It is the largest port in the country – more important than all the other ports put together – and it contains the largest factories and most of the banking and insurance houses in Argentina.

The theatres, opera house, museums, and art collections of Buenos Aires attract thousands of tourists, not only from other parts of the country but from all over the world. And Buenos Aires is a centre of education, its university having over 40,000 students.

Perhaps the first thing to strike a visitor would be the bustling activity in the five great docks of the city, where ships from all over the world can be seen. Buenos Aires, like many of the world's greatest cities, has been founded on trade. Although over a hundred miles from the open sea, it is connected with it by the easily navigable river Plate (*Rio de la Plata*), and much of Argentina's commerce passes through Buenos Aires.

The visitor is immediately impressed by the size of the city, with its tall skyscrapers jutting out of a seemingly endless horizon of buildings, and its vast parks and wide avenues. For Buenos Aires is indeed a gigantic city. It is not only the largest in Argentina, and in South America, but the largest in the whole Southern Hemisphere. It is the seventh biggest city in the world; the population of Buenos Aires and its suburbs (together known as Greater Buenos Aires) is approaching 6 million – about one-quarter of the whole population of the Argentine.

Buenos Aires is very cosmopolitan (containing many different nationalities). Newspapers in nearly 50 languages can be bought there. Most of the people are of European stock, with only a very few of negro or South American origin. As in most South American countries, Spanish is the language spoken, because it was the Spaniards who first colonised the land.

The climate of Buenos Aires is pleasant, with hot summers and mild winters, and must have pleased the early Spanish conquerors who named it – for *Buenos Aires* means 'good airs'.

How Buenos Aires grew between 1583 and 1945; the original settlement is shown in purple

The hinterland

The prosperity of Buenos Aires is, to a large extent, based on the richness of the surrounding areas. The province of Buenos Aires, which lies immediately behind the great city, is the centre of the fertile pampa region (see page 462). This contains most of the fac-

The Avenida 9 de Julio – probably the widest. The obelisk was erected in 1936 to celebrate

THE GROWTH OF BUENOS AIRES

Most great cities, such as Rome, London, Paris, Vienna, and Moscow, all reached a pre-eminent position in the life of their countries at a very early stage. But it was not until the second half of the last century that the phenomenal growth of Buenos Aires really began. Its growth was based upon three main factors.

BUENOS AIRES

tories, farms, railways, and indeed population of Argentina, and it is this area that produces not only the maize, wheat, and livestock, which are the main agricultural products of the country, but also most of the industrial products.

About 65 per cent of the population of the Argentine live in the pampa region; 70 per cent of the railway network is concentrated there; and it is responsible for 85 per cent of the total industrial production. And the main port and city serving this rich area is Buenos Aires.

The foundation of Buenos Aires

The area now covered by Buenos Aires was first settled in 1536 when Pedro de Mendoza, a Spanish adventurer, landed there. But the small colony he founded lasted only a few years, and hostile Indians drove the invaders out.

In 1580 another Spaniard, Juan de Garay, reoccupied the site, and silver from the mines of the interior was shipped through the *Puerto de Santa Maria del Buen Aire*. This trading outpost survived to become the Buenos Aires of today.

Buenos Aires today

Buenos Aires is a spacious, open, modern city. The central part is divided into squares with long avenues and roads intersecting at right angles, and with many glorious parks, gardens, and monuments.

The main avenue of Buenos Aires is the famous Avenida de Mayo. This leads from the magnificent Plaza de Mayo to the Plaza del Congreso, in which is situated the imposing Palacio del Congreso, where the Federal Parliament of the Argentine Republic meets.

Intersecting the Avenida de Mayo is the Avenida 9 de Julio, which is about 130 yards across and probably the widest street in the world.

Many beautiful and famous buildings are situated on these great avenues. Facing the Plaza de Mayo is the Government Palace, the Casa Rosada, which is the official residence of the President of the Republic. Also on the Plaza de Mayo are the enormous Treasury building, the vast, modern cathedral, and the National Bank of the Argentine.

The former Cabildo (Town Hall) on the Plaza de Mayo, which is now kept as a museum

street in the world – is about 130 yards wide. the fourth centenary of the city's foundation

The Casa Rosada, in the Plaza de Mayo, is the official residence of the President

Commerce. Buenos Aires did not develop as a trading centre till the middle of the 19th century, when its port grew rapidly in importance. Shipping improvements, the development of refrigeration, and the big demand for cereals from the industrial countries of Europe gave Argentina the opportunity to expand her wheat, maize, and beef exports. So the pampa region became rich, and the trade of the pampa region of necessity passed through Buenos Aires.

Foreign capital. Europeans invested much money in the Argentine's industries after 1850. Again Buenos Aires, as the centre of the richest industrial province, benefited.

Immigration. Thousands of Europeans settled in Buenos Aires to share the increasing prosperity, bringing skills and ideas which further stimulated development.

FACTS AND FIGURES

Area of city:	75 sq m
Area of Greater Buenos Aires:	710 sq m
Population of city (1960):	3,875,700
Population of Greater B.A.:	about 5½ million
Number of airports:	2
Number of theatres:	38
Number of cinemas:	2,300
Underground railway networks:	3
Television stations:	4
Public libraries:	340

THE RAPID GROWTH OF POPULATION IN BUENOS AIRES

1778	24,200
1855	90,000
1870	270,000
1909	1,000,000
1914	1,500,000
1936	2,500,000
1956	3,500,000

THE SECOND WORLD WAR (part one)

DURING the 1930s Hitler transformed Germany into the greatest military power on earth (see page 2753). As German might grew, so Europe fell under the spell of a man dedicated to the supremacy of his nation and his race, and the triumph of brute force. Under Hitler's remorseless ambition, the flimsy structure of the Treaty of Versailles (see page 2742) crumbled. The Rhineland was remilitarised, Austria and the Sudetenland annexed, and then all Czechoslovakia gobbled up.

Hitler's appetite was insatiable, and at last Britain and France resolved to take a firm stand. They guaranteed the frontiers of Poland which were obviously the next item on Hitler's menu. But Hitler would not be warned. His troops secretly massed on the Polish border, and at dawn on 1st September 1939 they streamed over the frontier. Three days later Britain and France declared war on Germany.

Poland is crushed

Germany's war plans were simple. The western front would be held with a weak force of 23 divisions, while the cream of the German army crushed Poland. Then all her forces would turn to a decisive campaign in the west against France and Britain.

The plan worked perfectly. Theoretically, Poland's forces, almost as numerous as those launched against her, should have been able to hold out long enough for western aid to arrive, but her dispositions were faulty, her mobilisation slow, and her communications wrecked by a devastating series of bomb attacks delivered by the *Luftwaffe*. Many of Poland's cavalry brigades were still mounted – a futile adversary to pit against the armoured and motorised columns streaming in a pincer-like movement on Warsaw. By 7th September Silesia was overrun, and three days later the garrison in Warsaw was isolated. Polish morale was finally broken when Russia invaded the undefended eastern frontier on 17th September, and on 28th September Germany and Russia partitioned Poland between them.

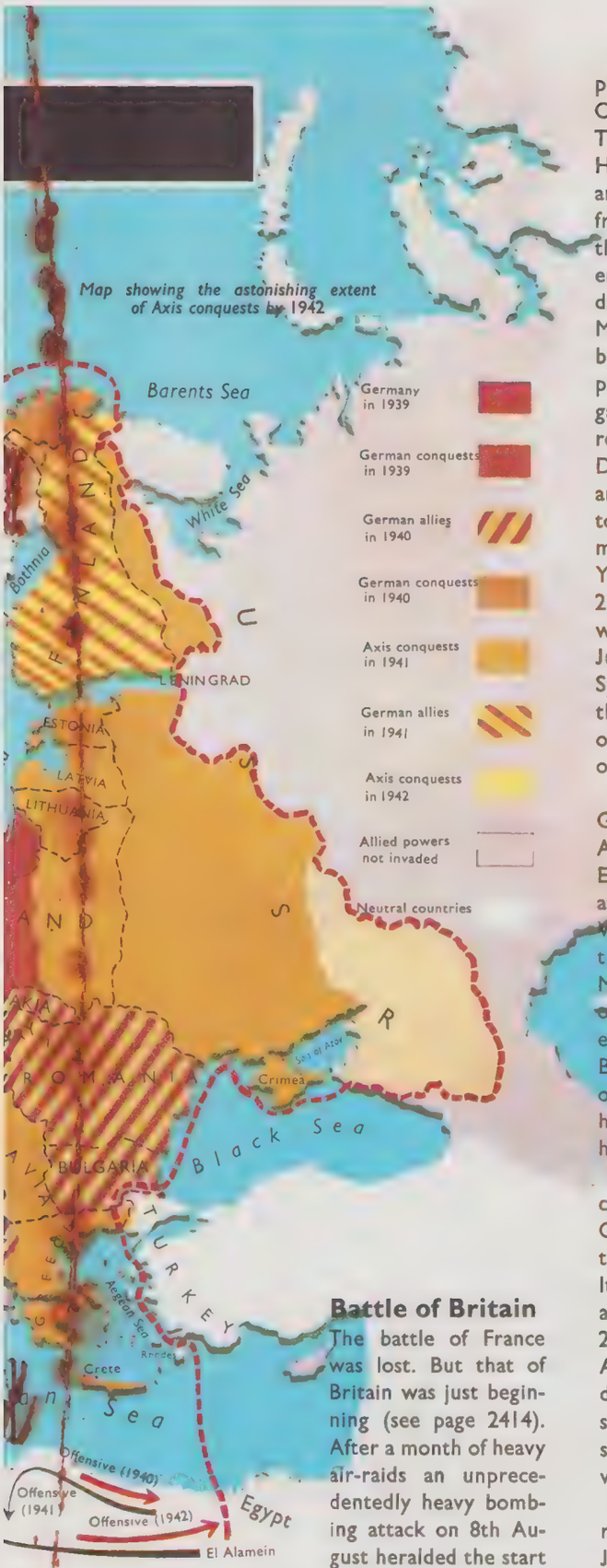
Russia was, as yet, neutral in the great conflict which had begun on 3rd September. Yet it was her next move – the occupation of the Baltic states of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania – which precipitated the next act in the drama. She made territorial demands on a suspicious Finland, who rejected them. The Russo-Finnish war broke out, and Hitler, fearful that the Allies would send help to Finland and occupy Scandinavia, launched an invasion of his own on 9th April 1940. Denmark was overrun in one day, and, despite allied help, Norway collapsed, and the Norwegian government fled to England on 8th June.

The battle of France

For the Allies things began to look really grim – the collapse of Norway was dwarfed by disaster on the western front. On 10th May long months of inactivity, the so-called 'phony war', came to an end. Just before dawn Germany launched an attack on Holland, Belgium, and Luxembourg. Luxembourg surrendered immediately. On 15th May Holland was overrun, and her government fled to England.

German columns pressed on into France. While Germany had been occupied in Poland and Scandinavia, France had made only minor advances against the relatively weak German troops. Her famous 'Maginot line' proved no defence against a German attack through Belgium, and her Intelligence made a faulty assumption that German troops could not advance *en masse* through the Ardennes. So it was, France was routed. On 14th May the allied line on the Franco-Belgian border was broken. Amiens was taken on 19th May, and on 23rd Boulogne and Calais were attacked. The British Expeditionary Force in France was completely cut off, and its only line of retreat was the sea. At midnight on 27th-28th May Belgium at last surrendered, and on 27th the momentous evacuation from Dunkirk began. 338,000 troops, mostly British, were successfully evacuated, though their equipment remained behind on the Dunkirk beaches. But France was demoralised, and soon Paris itself was threatened. On 10th June Mussolini, green with envy at the successes of his fellow-dictator, opened up a new French front by declaring war on France and Britain. On 14th June the Germans entered Paris, and on 22nd the French surrendered.

German terms were harsh. France was left with little independence, and a pro-Nazi regime was set up at Vichy. General de Gaulle and a number of others went abroad and banded together as the 'Free French', but the majority of ships' crews and troops, including most of those so heroically saved at Dunkirk, showed no inclination to fight any more and were returned to France.



Map showing the astonishing extent of Axis conquests by 1942

Battle of Britain

The battle of France was lost. But that of Britain was just beginning (see page 2414). After a month of heavy air-raids an unprecedentedly heavy bombing attack on 8th August heralded the start of a determined effort by the *Luftwaffe* to crush Britain. Attacks on convoys and coastal towns were followed by attacks on factories and military targets. On 7th September a series of heavy daylight raids on the London area began. Somehow Britain, inspired by the stirring speeches of her Prime Minister, Winston Churchill, held out. The R A F fighters, the 'heroic few', held their own and finally wrested supremacy from the Germans.

The German war machine could not replenish its heavy losses, and by the end of October 1940 the Battle of Britain was won. Though devastating air attacks continued, Hitler's invasion plans were postponed, and the British could now prepare to turn from defence of the homeland to other theatres of war. Those theatres were widened by Italy on 28th October, when she decided to invade Greece from Albania. To Mussolini's astonishment he was defeated by the Greeks, who turned the tables and penetrated into Albania. The Italians' defeat gave Germany the chance to intervene. Already she had Balkan plans of her own. In December she massed troops in Hungary and Romania, and 'pressurised' Bulgaria into joining the Axis. On 6th April 1941 Germany invaded both Yugoslavia and Greece. Yugoslavia collapsed in 11 days, Greece in 21. On 20th May Germany invaded Crete with a mass parachute attack. Although by July 1941 the British had gained control of Syria and the Lebanon from Vichy-France, the Axis had gained a virtual stranglehold on the eastern Mediterranean, as a result of the Balkan wars.

At the same time as their invasion of Greece the Italians were campaigning in Africa. In September 1940 they attacked Egypt, but in December a British counter-attack drove them out of Egypt. General Wavell, following up this victory, captured Tobruk on 22nd January, and by March 1941 the Italians had been driven out of Cyrenaica. Meanwhile the Italian army in eastern Africa was being attacked by the British. Addis Ababa fell on 6th April, and on 5th May Emperor Haile Selassie entered his Abyssinian kingdom five years after he had been driven out by Mussolini.

But British success in North Africa was checked by the arrival, from Germany, of General Erwin Rommel to take command of the campaign so miserably conducted by Italy. At the end of May 1941 he attacked and drove the British back on Egypt. On 21st June the gallant garrison (mostly Australian) left behind in Tobruk surrendered, and by the late summer of 1942 it seemed as if Egypt, with its enormous strategic and economic importance, was within Rommel's grasp.

By the summer of 1942 the war had already greatly extended in scope. On 22nd June 1941 Hitler had launched a long-premeditated attack on Russia, and by the end of the year had reached the suburbs of Leningrad in the north, Moscow in the centre, and had overrun the Ukraine and captured Kiev. The following summer he launched a great attack in southern Russia. German troops penetrated far into the Caucasus, and by September were pushing their way, street by street, into Stalingrad (see page 2766).

THE WAR BECOMES GLOBAL

Six months after Hitler's invasion of Russia the whole perspective of the war changed when Japan bombed the American fleet at Pearl Harbour. Japan was allied to Germany and Italy, who both declared war on the United States four days after the Pearl Harbour attack.

Britain was no longer alone as she had been in the summer and autumn of 1940. She now had the twin giants – Russia and America – fighting by her side. Yet Japan, in the space of a few months, gained virtual control of the entire Pacific area. On 10th December two British warships, the *Prince of Wales* and the *Repulse*, were sunk by Japanese air attacks, and on 27th February 1942 the battle of Java affirmed Japanese naval and air supremacy.

On Christmas Day 1941 Hong Kong surrendered to the Japanese. Singapore fell on 15th February, and the Dutch East Indies fell in March. Malaya was overrun, and the Japanese penetrated into Burma. On 1st May Japanese troops reached Akyab.

Meanwhile, Japan advanced along the chain of islands in the Pacific. In March she conquered New Guinea and the Solomon Islands, and in April took the Admiralty Islands. Thus she established control of a huge perimeter stretching from Burma, through the Dutch East Indies, down to New Guinea. She threatened not only India but Australia.

The summer of 1942 brought some relief, for in May America won the battle of the Coral Sea, Japan's first real defeat. And in June Japan was defeated again in the great battle of Midway Island.

Nevertheless, as the autumn of 1942 approached, Japan was in possession of colossal areas of the Pacific and the Asian mainland. At the same time German armies controlled thousands upon thousands of square miles of Russian territory. In North Africa, Egypt was in peril, and Hitler had defeated every one of his European enemies but Britain. He had never seemed so powerful. His conquests were unparalleled in military history. How the Allies fought back in Asia and Africa, as well as in Europe, we shall see in a future article.

The Far Eastern campaign (1941–1942)

DIRECT AND

The major steps in the production and distribution of electric power. Transformers are used first to

LOOK at the back of almost any object which has to be plugged into the mains electricity supply to make it work – a radio, a television, a washing machine, or a record player – and you will probably find written there: 200–240 V 50 ~ A C. This tells us the kind of electricity with which it must be supplied. 240 V means that the 'pressure' or 'tension' of the electricity supply must be 240 volts. A small battery gives 1½ volts, and the transmission lines that carry the electricity from the power stations are mostly at 132,000 volts. However, there is an important difference between the flow of electricity from a battery and the flow of electricity that comes to the electricity meters in our homes.

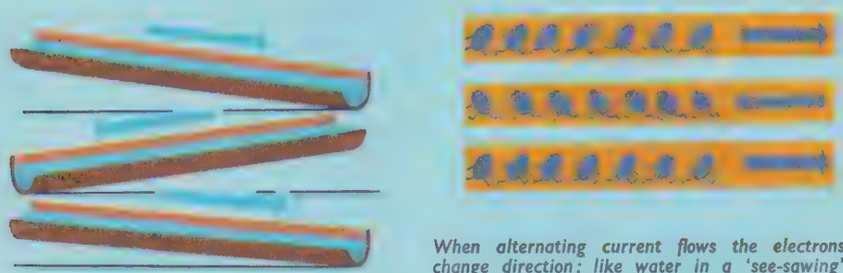
Direct and alternating current

We know already (see page 476) that a current of electricity is a flow of tiny particles of matter called electrons, which are negatively charged. The flow of electrons from a battery is always in the same direction: from the negative end, through the electrical circuit, to the positive end of the battery. This can be compared to the flow of water in a tube which is always sloping in the same direction.

Now suppose the tube is see-sawed about its mid-point. The left hand is now lower than the right, making the water flow in the opposite direction. If we continue to rock the tube the water will flow first one way and then the other. The electrons in a wire can be made to do exactly the same thing simply by making

The flow of electrons in a wire using direct current is similar to the flow of water in a sloping channel. The water, and the electrons, always move in the same direction

each end of the wire first positive (with the other negative) and then negative (with the other positive). The electrons will flow first one way and then the other, making an *alternating current* (A C). In Britain the current from the power stations alternates 50 times every second; the current is said to have a frequency of 50 cycles per second. This is what the sign 50 ~ means. One 'coming and going' of electrons lasts for one-fiftieth of a second.



When alternating current flows the electrons change direction; like water in a 'see-sawing' tube, they oscillate to and fro

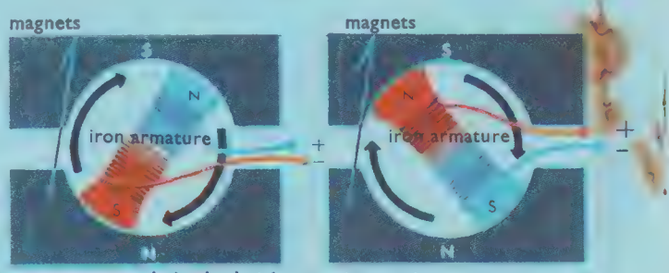
Making alternating and direct currents

The electric current which comes from a simple battery is continuous, but if the current is generated using an electromagnetic device this is not necessarily so. The diagram below represents a simple electric current generator.

The armature (see page 2188) is turned either by water or steam power. It is made of a soft iron core, wound around with insulated copper wire. As the armature rotates, one end of the wire becomes positive and the other negative. The direction of the current varies continuously; first the red end becomes negative (see diagram below), then in the next half revolution it is positive; this forms an alternating current.

If the current is taken out through a commutator (see top diagram on next page), each brush receives current first from one end of the armature then from the other. Since the current is also reversing, each brush always receives the same type of electricity – for example, always positive. This is a D C generator.

If the armature windings are attached to slip rings (lower diagram), each brush is always connected to the same end of the armature, so the current in each brush reverses. This is an A C generator.

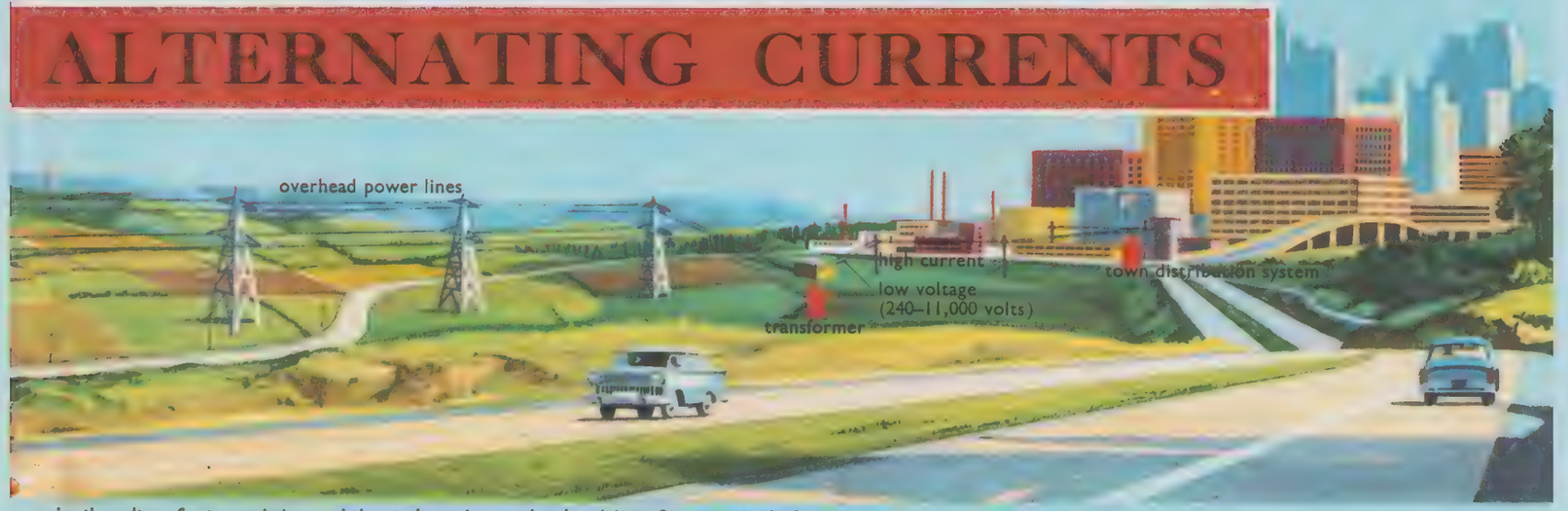


A simple electric current generator

Large-scale production and distribution

There are three main ways of producing large amounts of electricity: water power, coal, and nuclear energy. When water power is used the power station must be near the dam which controls the flow of water. When coal is used the power station must be near the coal-field, and when nuclear power is used it must be well away from cities, in case of accident. So electricity often has to be carried over long distances from

ALTERNATING CURRENTS



raise the voltage for transmission, and then to lower it to make electricity safer to use in the home

power station to user. The quantity of electricity produced by a power station is measured in *watts* (*volts* × *current in amps*). The same quantity of electricity can be carried at high voltage and low current as at low voltage and high current.

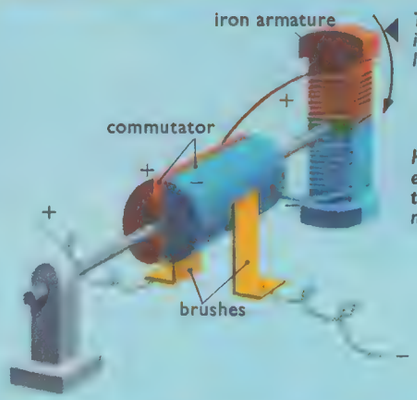
Whenever an electric current is sent along a wire some is lost, due to the resistance of the wire – the higher the current the greater the loss. Since electricity is produced in generators at low voltage and high current, it must be *transformed* to give it high voltage and low current, before it can be economically carried over long distances. This is done in a *transformer*. The current leaves the transformer at 132,000 volts to 400,000 volts, and is carried by overhead power lines to the city where it is to be used. On the outskirts of the city it is transformed in stages back to a low voltage (and high current) which makes it safer to use in houses and factories. Alternating current has one big advantage over direct current here: it is very easy to make an A C transformer, but extremely difficult and expensive to make a device to transform direct current.

When factories use a large amount of electricity they are supplied with a higher voltage, such as 11,000 volts; this is then converted in the private factory substation to whatever voltage is required by the machines. In Britain the most common voltage at which electricity is used in private houses is 240 volts.

Most of the power stations in Britain are connected together by a system of high-voltage power lines, called the National Grid System. This ensures a continuous supply of electricity even when a power station breaks down.

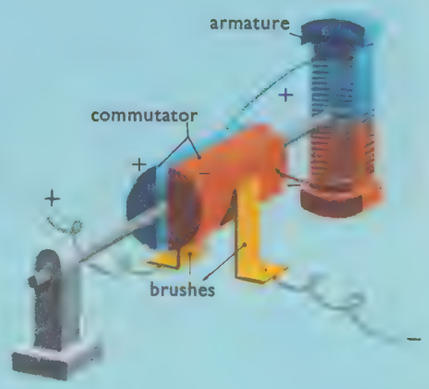
The demand for electricity varies throughout the day, and from month to month. The 'peak' or maximum demand occurs in the morning between 8 a m and 10 a m, and in the evening between 6 p m and 8 p m. It is greater in the winter than in the summer. At the moment the power stations in Britain can only just supply enough electricity during these peak periods, and a scheme has recently been devised to take electric power from the French grid system when the British one proves inadequate. This can be done because the peak demand in France does not coincide exactly with the peak demand in Britain.

DIRECT CURRENT GENERATION

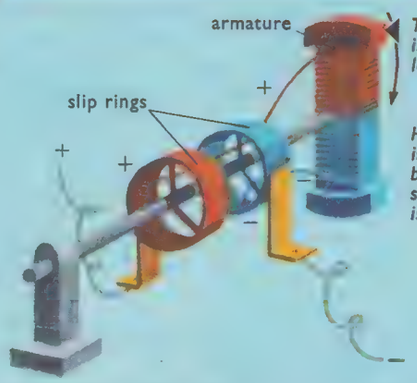


The red end of the armature (positive) is connected via the commutator to the left brush; and the blue end (negative) to the right brush

Half a revolution later, the blue end is now positive and is connected to the left brush; the red end is negative and connected to the right brush

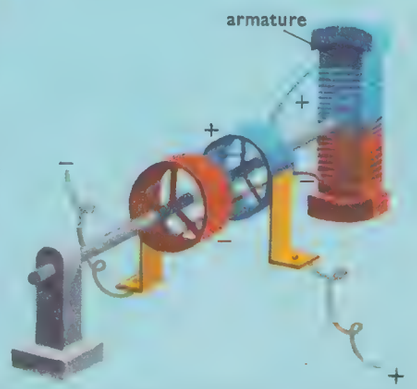


ALTERNATING CURRENT GENERATION



The red end of the armature (positive) is connected via the slip ring to the left brush and the blue end (negative) is connected to the right brush

Half a revolution later, the red end is still connected to the left brush, but is now negative. The blue end is still connected to the right brush, but is now positive. The brushes are receiving alternating current



THE LAKE DISTRICT

Some of the wild, romantic scenery that captivated Wordsworth and made the Lake District world-famous; Blea Tarn, looking towards Langdale Pikes

UP on the north-west coast of England, past the great industrial plain of Cheshire and south Lancashire, past Preston and Blackpool, lies one of the most beautiful, wild, and unspoilt areas in the country. There are many mountains here; some steep-sided, others sloping more gently. Sheep graze on them, heather and bracken cover them, and down their sides run small streams which gather together in the valleys to form lakes. These lakes have given the region its name – the Lake District.

The Lake District is roughly circular, with a diameter of about 30 miles, and includes the north of Lancashire, the south of Cumberland, and the west of Westmorland. The formation of the mountains has been compared to two cartwheels, with ridges radiating out like spokes from hubs at Esk Hause in the west and Helvellyn in the east. The lakes in the valleys are generally long and narrow. For example, Windermere, the largest lake in England, is 10½ miles long by 1 mile wide; Derwentwater 3 miles by 1 mile; Grasmere 1 mile by half a mile.

The rock formation of the area has led to three different types of country: the Skiddaw mountains are high but with smooth, steep sides; the Borrowdale series, in the centre of the region, are equally high but are craggy, and good for climbing; and rocks dating from the Silurian period, mostly on the south of the district, give low fell country. Scafell Pike, in the Borrowdale series, is the highest mountain in England (3,210 feet).

The Lake District is possibly the most beautiful region in England; it is certainly the wettest, for rain-bearing winds blow in from the west coast, and in some places the annual rainfall is over 100 inches. But this weather adds enormously to the beauty of the district, filling the mountain streams until they are gushing torrents and waterfalls, keeping up the lakes' water level, and leading to the soft air and luminous look of the landscape.

Early history

About 3,500 years ago Neolithic men from France and Spain arrived on the coast of Cumberland, and made their way inland, where they settled on the mountain slopes. They have left us a constant reminder of their settlement in their circles of stone; some have more or less disappeared, but others, like those at Castlerigg and Swinside, are still nearly intact.

These early inhabitants must have been very poor. The more fertile lower slopes of the mountains were too thickly wooded with birches, chestnuts, and oaks for them to clear easily with their primitive tools, and so they settled on the upper slopes, which provided only meagre grazing for their half-tamed flocks and little soil fertile enough for them to cultivate.

When the Romans came to the Lake District they built roads, and forts to keep out raiders from further north, but they left behind little mark on the Celtic people they found there. Not much is known about these tribes, though one of them, the *Cymru* or Welsh, gave their name to Cumberland; and, as in Lincolnshire (see page 1952), Celtic-based numerals have

DID YOU KNOW?

1. John Peel, the huntsman made famous by the song, came from Cumberland. His coat would have been grey, not gay, and he probably hunted on foot.

2. People who come to the Lake District from other parts of the country – however close – are known as offcomers.

3. About three-quarters of a million people visit the Lake District each year, 50,000 of whom come from abroad.

been used for centuries by shepherds counting their sheep.

In the 9th and 10th centuries the Lake District was invaded by Norsemen. They came from the west coast, and settled in the region, intermarrying with the Celts. Many of the place names, like those ending in *thwaite*, *skel*, and *blea*, are basically Norse, and so are words like *fell* (hillside), *tarn* (a small mountain lake), and *beck* (a mountain stream), which are now part of the local dialect.

Border fighting

The Lake District lies close to the Scottish border, and for centuries was disputed territory. From time to time the Scots overran the area, only to be beaten back by the English, and even after the border had been settled the Scots made brief raids into the Lake District to plunder the farms. Castles were built and garrisoned, but these did not protect farms from sudden raids. Farmhouses were fortified, and *pele* towers built. These were oblong stone towers, with immensely thick walls, which could easily be defended; even if raiders did break down the doors, the narrow stairs could be held without difficulty.

In troubled times beacons were lit on peaks and even on church towers to give warning of the raids. The beacon on Skiddaw has been immortalised by the poet Macaulay, who told how its glare warned the burghers of Carlisle to the north – Macaulay was writing not of border raids but of the threatened invasion of the Spanish Armada, when a chain of beacons was lit all over England.

An invasion of visitors

The most recent invasion of the Lake District started in the 19th century and has continued until the present day. It is not a warlike invasion but an invasion of tourists. It started when poets, including Wordsworth and Coleridge, wrote in praise of the region. The splendid walks over the fells, the magnificent views, the waterfalls, the deer – all appealed immensely to the Victorian temperament. And the more adventurous and rugged among them saw the possibilities for rock-climbing in the Lakeland. Farmers started to let rooms and cottages to these visitors, and some even stationed women beside the waterfalls to collect money from those who came to admire them. Today tourism is one of the main 'industries' of the area. Climbing is tremendously popular; the lakes provide sailing and swimming; and long walks can be taken across the fells. The less energetic can drive through the district, stopping to take photographs of the scenery.

Although tourists overrun the district, the life of the farmers has not altered very much. They still use collie dogs to gather their sheep, and many still shear them by hand. The sheep are marked in the traditional way, with stripes, 'pops' (round blobs), and letters of stain or tar, though the old ear-marking system is dying out. Although fences are sometimes put up on the hills, the craft of building dry stone walls is still practised. Dog trials are held, and so are the Cumberland and Westmorland wrestling bouts.

Plants and animals

The Lake District was originally forested up to about 2,000 feet, but generation after generation of its inhabitants have cleared the trees away, so that now the

One of the most famous lakes – Derwentwater

fells are covered with heather. Bracken, too, is spreading over them, but it is dangerous as well as beautiful since it poisons the sheep. Now man is replacing the trees he once cleared, but the new plantations are largely of spruce and larch, instead of the birches and oaks which are native to the region. Among the rocks grow mosses and lichens, and there are still some rare alpine plants, though these are growing scarcer as they are eaten by browsing sheep.

Sheep are the most characteristic animals of the district – the little grey Herdwicks, the traditional sheep of this region, and the more recently introduced Swaledales. They have their enemies among the wild animals, chief of which are the foxes. These foxes are much larger than those in the south of England; some weigh over 26 pounds, and they are a menace to the farmers. Polecats and pine-martens also roam the fells, although their numbers have greatly decreased, while above hover buzzards, ravens, and carrion crows.

The largest animals of the Lake District are the shaggy, sure-footed fell ponies, and the red and roe deer which are still seen in some areas.

Poets and writers

The most famous poet of the Lake District is Wordsworth (see page 2352) who was born at Cockermouth and educated at Hawkshead, so he was born and brought up among the Lakes. Although part of his life was spent away from the Lakes, he returned in 1799 and spent the rest of his life there. The daffodils he wrote about in perhaps his best-known poem grew on the banks of Ullswater – in fact, he was not wandering 'lonely as a cloud' but was accompanied by his sister, Dorothy, who gives a vivid description of the scene in her journal.

Sheep – large Lakeland foxes are their enemies

Coleridge, Wordsworth's great friend, lived for a time near Rydal Water, and the poet Southey lived near Keswick for 40 years. Ruskin, who campaigned ardently against the industrialisation of the region, spent the latter years of his life on the shores of Lake Coniston, and Hugh Walpole wrote a series of novels set in the Lake District.

One other author who lived in the Lake District must be mentioned. Beatrix Potter wrote no poems, no essays, no novels, but books for young children – simple stories about animals and the countryside she loved so much. And the illustrations she painted have made thousands of people, many of whom have never even visited England, familiar with the landscape of the Lake District.

SYRIA AND JORDAN

THE neighbouring Middle-Eastern states of Syria and Jordan abound in historical associations. Names with a biblical ring – Damascus, Jericho, Jordan – conjure up a thousand images of their rich and varied pasts, and traces of many ancient civilisations are found within their borders. With their mainly Arab populations, and arid, almost desert landscapes, interrupted occasionally by the dramatic greenness of an oasis or the deep Rift Valley, these countries appear to Western eyes to hold the gateway to the East. In the north and east, they are bounded by Turkey and Iraq, and in the south, by Saudi-Arabia. Jordan is denied access to the Mediterranean by the modern state of Israel, and Syria has only a small strip of coastline north of Lebanon.

SYRIA

If you were to approach Syria from the sea, the bare white limestone of her coastal range of mountains would seem to rise straight out of the blue Mediterranean. But in fact these mountains, called the Jebel el Ansariye, are separated from the shore by a narrow plain. Beyond the coastal range is a deep rift valley, through which the river Orontes flows. East of the Orontes stretches a barren plateau, which merges with the Syrian desert, south-east of Damascus. Near Syria's eastern border with Iraq, the fertile valley of the Euphrates begins, and the Anti-Lebanon range of mountains lies on her border with Lebanon. In the extreme south-eastern corner of her territory the rugged, lava-capped peak of the Jebel ed Druz rises from the plateau. This area has long been a favourite resort of brigands.

CLIMATE. Distance from the coast and height above sea-level are the main climatic influences. The whole country has droughts, but in winter temperatures and rainfall vary in different regions. On the coast, the climate is typically Mediterranean, with mild, wet winters. But, in the mountains, the winters are very cold, and there are heavy falls of snow. The interior has extremely hot summers, and cold, frosty winters.

VEGETATION. Much of Syria has only a very thin cover of vegetation. The dry limestone rocks of the Jebel el Ansariye and the Anti-Lebanon are often quite bare, and many other parts will support only scattered dwarf bushes and stunted evergreen oaks (*garrigue*), although a colourful mat of flowering grasses springs up after rain in the desert, where there are vast areas of bare rock and sand. Much of Syria's woodland has already been cut down, but there are still some small areas of mixed woodland in the Jebel el Ansariye. The plateau between the desert and the mountains is mainly covered with grassland.

Palmyra, one of Syria's ancient ruined cities

Agriculture and industry

Most of the population of Syria lives by farming, and since 1945 her agricultural land has been more than doubled, mainly due to irrigation. Generally, wheat provides the staple diet, and it can be grown as high as 5,000 feet above sea-level. Barley, vegetables, fruit, tobacco, mulberry trees, and olives are also widely grown. In recent years cotton has been grown on a large scale, and it is now Syria's most valuable export crop. The drier and hillier areas are grazed by goats and sheep, and the valleys of the Anti-Lebanon serve as winter pastures for the flocks and herds of the desert nomads. Although there has been some recent industrial development, Syria's industry is still limited; the main products are textiles, tobacco, food, and glassware.

SYRIA – SUMMARY

Area: about 71,000 sq m
Population: 4,500,000
Towns: Damascus 450,000
Aleppo 450,000
Language: Arabic
Religion: Islam
Imports: textiles, machinery, vehicles, metals, chemicals
Exports: cotton, raw wool, silk, cereals, olive oil, fruit, hides and skins
Land use: arable 22·2%, grassland 34·1%, woods 2·4%, rest 41·3%

JORDAN – SUMMARY

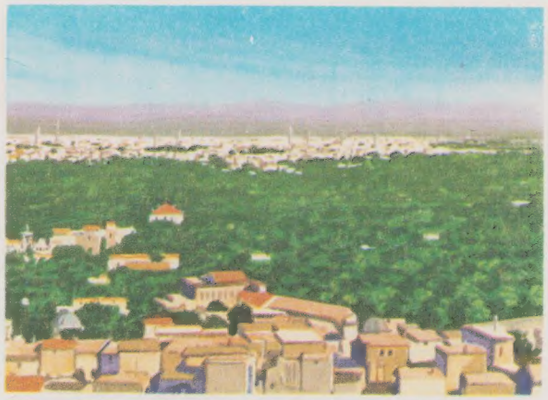
Area: 37,500 sq m
Population: 1,752,095
Towns: Amman 244,599
Jerusalem (in Jordan) 60,373
Language: Arabic
Religion: Islam
Imports: cereals, sugar, vehicles, machinery, and oils
Exports: vegetables, fertilisers, fruit, olive oil, leather
Land use: arable 9·2%, grassland 7·8%, woods 5·4%, rest 77·6 %

Damascus and Aleppo

Syria's two largest cities, Damascus and Aleppo, both claim to be the oldest in the world.

Damascus lies at the foot of the Anti-Lebanon in a vast oasis, watered by the rivers Barada and A'waj, and consequently has been an important trading centre for centuries. Now it has a modern appearance and, as well as lying in an agricultural region, is the centre of the tourist, textile, and metal-working industries.

The ancient market town of Aleppo still retains a mysterious oriental atmosphere. With its picturesque citadel, its narrow, vaulted alleyways, and its continual bustle, it seems to the Western visitor the perfect embodiment of an Eastern city.



Damascus lies at the heart of a great fertile oasis

JORDAN

Jordan consists mainly of a barren, featureless plateau and rough hill country, but it does contain part of one of the world's most remarkable natural phenomena – the Great Rift Valley. The floor of the valley is occupied by the river Jordan, which meanders southwards to the Dead Sea. The surface of this famous salt lake lies nearly 1,300 feet below sea-level, and the extreme heat of the Rift Valley causes intense evaporation, which is visible in strange-looking, bluish-white clouds, which float half-formed and ethereal above the waters. West of the Jordan lies the hill country of Samaria and Judea, and Jordan's troubled frontier with Israel. In the east, the Rift Valley is overshadowed by the precipitous scarp of the Jordanian plateau. This barren limestone region, which continues into the Syrian desert, is the least productive area in the country.

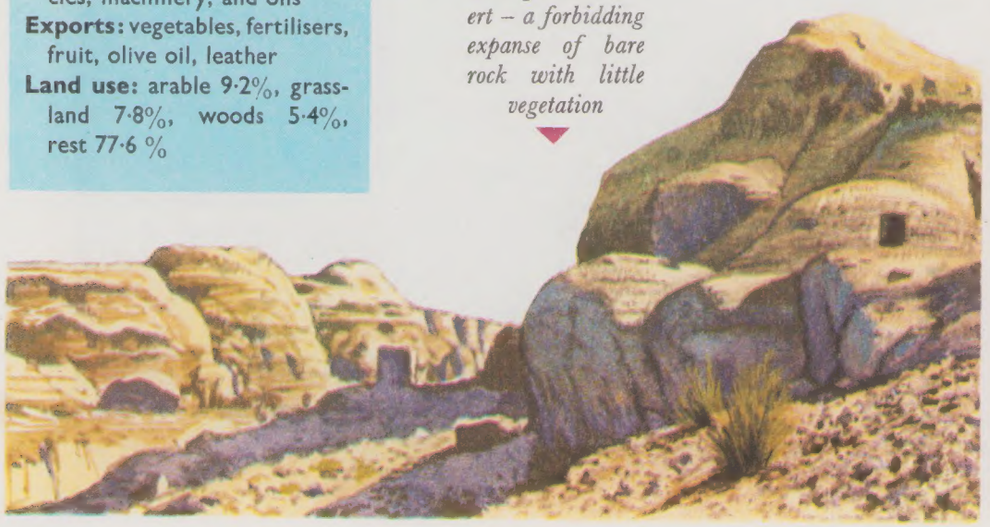
CLIMATE. Jordan is a land of long, hot, dry summers and fairly cold winters, with frost and some snow on the plateau. Rainfall is adequate in the hills, but elsewhere there is very little, and much of the desert has less than 5 inches a year.

VEGETATION. The dryness of the climate makes the vegetation even sparser than in Syria. The western hills and the deserts support only poor scrub and thorn bushes, which contrast strongly with the dense, jungle-like growth along the river Jordan.

Agriculture and industry

Dry climate and poor soils have limited Jordan's agricultural development. Most of the country is suitable only for grazing migratory herds of goats, sheep, and cattle. Practically all fertile land is farmed, and cereals, fruit, and vegetables are grown. The hill country of Judea and Samaria is the most successful crop-growing area, despite its poor soils. Terracing prevents soil being washed away by heavy rain. East of the Jordan, farming methods are more primitive, and much soil has been wasted by erosion. Insufficient wheat is produced to supply the country's needs, and the shortage has to be met by imports. Industry is unlikely to develop greatly, for mineral deposits are small, and the country lacks capital for expansion.

The Jordan desert – a forbidding expanse of bare rock with little vegetation



AMMAN AND JERUSALEM

Amman, Jordan's capital, is situated on the limestone plateau close to the margin of the desert. Unlike Damascus and Aleppo, it has never been a great trading centre, and its growth to a population of about a quarter of a million has occurred mainly during this century. It is the country's chief administrative and cultural centre, and has developed a number of light industries.

The second city of Jordan is Jerusalem, part of which lies within Israel. It lies in a barren, rather inaccessible region, and was built on a site that could easily be defended. It has maintained its position because of its religious associations, and today pilgrims provide its main source of income.

DIPHTHERIA

CAN you imagine a poison so powerful that one gram of it will kill 300 million guinea-pigs? If you can, you have a good idea of the poison, or *toxin*, which is made by the diphtheria germ. You will also understand why diphtheria is such a serious illness. Fortunately, in Britain today it is very rare.

Although well known to the physicians of the Ancient World, diphtheria was not given its present name until 1826. In that year a French physician, Pierre Bretonneau, wrote a wonderful description of the illness, and, thinking of the membrane which appears on the back and sides of the throat in this disease, he coined the name *diphthérite*. The word which he invented comes from the Greek word *diphthera*, a membrane.

THE CAUSE OF DIPHTHERIA

Diphtheria is caused by a bacterium known as *Corynebacterium diphtheriae*. This long name for a microbe which is only 1/5,000th of an inch long and 1/50,000th of an inch wide means 'the club-shaped bacterium of diphtheria'. As the illustration shows, many of these microbes do, indeed, have bodies with swollen club-like ends.

Corynebacterium diphtheriae was observed first in 1883 by the German bacteriologist Edwin Klebs. But he did not realise that it was the cause of diphtheria. In the following year Frederick Loeffler, another German bacteriologist, isolated similar microbes from the throats of many children ill with diphtheria, and by so doing made it almost certain that the germ was the cause of the illness. Although since that time countless workers have added to our knowledge of diphtheria and the microbe which causes it, the two German bacteriologists have not been forgotten. To this day the microbe responsible for diphtheria is often spoken of as the *Klebs-Loeffler bacillus*.

This illustration shows how diphtheria microbes appear under the microscope. They are magnified 1,500 times

One question which puzzled the early workers on diphtheria was how a microbe which, like the diphtheria bacillus, infects only a small part of the body could cause such a serious and often fatal illness. The answer came in 1888 when two French scientists, Emile Roux and Alexandre Yersin, discovered *diphtheria toxin*. This toxin, which is made by the microbe as it grows in the throat of its victims, enters the blood stream and is carried to all parts of the body. The amount of diphtheria toxin present in the tissues of an individual suffering from diphtheria is quite minute, but its effects are profound. It upsets the metabolism of the body and makes the victims generally ill. In particular, it poisons the heart muscle, weakening the heartbeat. It also damages nerve fibres, and in this way causes paralysis of the muscles.

THE SYMPTOMS OF DIPHTHERIA

Since diphtheria is a disease which most often affects the throat, it is easily transmitted to other people when an infected person coughs or even when he speaks. It can also be transmitted by articles which have been handled by an infected person, though this is less usual.

The period between infection and the first signs of the illness, the *incubation period*, is two to five days. The victim begins to feel ill and often has a sore throat. A whitish membrane appears on the back and sides of the throat and on the tonsils, and it is in this membrane that the diphtheria microbes grow.

Sometimes the microbe infects the *larynx*, or voice box. When this happens the membrane may obstruct the flow of air to and from the lungs and thus threaten the patient with suffocation.

The appearance of the diphtheritic membrane

THE TREATMENT OF DIPHTHERIA

Before the microbial cause of diphtheria was known there was little that could be done for the victims of this disease other than to make sure that they were skilfully nursed. Occasionally, in cases of diphtheria of the larynx, it was necessary to make an artificial opening into the windpipe to relieve the obstruction to the breathing. But in 1891 a German physician, Emil Behring, discovered how to make an *antitoxin* which would neutralise the toxin formed by the diphtheria microbes. When this antitoxin was injected into people with diphtheria it neutralised the toxin spreading through their bodies, and thus prevented poisoning of the heart.

Today, besides antitoxin, penicillin and other antibiotics (see page 613) are available for the treatment of diphtheria. These wonderful drugs will kill the diphtheria microbes in the infected person's throat, and in this way prevent them from forming their dangerous toxin.

THE PREVENTION OF DIPHTHERIA

The rarity of diphtheria in Britain today is due, not to good fortune, but to the very determined attempts which have been made to stamp out this disease.

When diphtheria microbes are grown in the laboratory they will, under certain conditions, produce toxin like that which they make when they grow in human throats. This toxin can be separated from the microbes, and if it is treated with a little formalin (H.CHO) it loses its toxicity (poisonousness) and becomes a harmless substance called diphtheria *toxoid*.

When diphtheria toxoid is used as a vaccine it causes the tissues of the vaccinated person to make antitoxin similar to that discovered by Emil Behring. The presence of this antitoxin in the body provides protection against diphtheria toxin, and so vaccinated persons are *immune* to diphtheria.

In order to achieve immunity of this kind, children are vaccinated when they are babies and again when they go to school.

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In matters of commerce the fault of the Dutch
Is offering too little and asking too much.
The French are with equal advantage content,
So we clap on Dutch bottoms just twenty per cent.
Dispatch, in cipher, to Sir Charles Bagot, English Ambassador at The Hague, 31st Jan. 1826.

Carlyle, Thomas (1795–1881)
The seagreen Incorruptible. [Of Robespierre.]
History of the French Revolution.
No great man lives in vain. The history of the world is but the biography of great men.
Heroes and Hero-Worship.
Captains of industry. *Past and Present.*

Lewis Carroll (Charles Lutwidge Dodgson; 1832–1898)
'Curiouser and curiouser!' cried Alice. *Alice in Wonderland.*
'Will you walk a little faster?' said a whiting to a snail,
'There's a porpoise close behind us, and he's treading on my tail.' *Ib.*
Soup of the evening, beautiful Soup! *Ib.*
The Queen was in a furious passion, and went stamping about, and shouting, 'Off with his head!' or 'Off with her head!' about once in a minute. *Ib.*
'Twas brillig, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble in the wabe;
All mimsy were the borogoves,
And the mome raths outgrabe.
Through the Looking-Glass.
'Speak when you're spoken to!' the Red Queen sharply interrupted her. *Ib.*

Chamberlain, Neville (1869–1940)
I believe it is peace for our time . . . peace with honour.
Radio speech after Munich Agreement, 1st Oct. 1938.

Charles I (1600–1649)
A Subject and a Sovereign are clean different things.
Speech on the scaffold, 30th Jan. 1649.

Charles II (1630–1685)
This is very true: for my words are my own, and my actions are my ministers'.
Reply to Lord Rochester's epitaph on him. **(See part two.)**

Chaucer, Geoffrey (1340?–1400)
He loved chivalrye,
Trouthe and honour, freedom and curteisye.
Canterbury Tales, Prologue.
He was a verray parfit gentil knight. *Ib.*

Chesterton, Gilbert Keith (1874–1936)
Before the Roman came to Rye or out to Severn strode,
The rolling English drunkard made the rolling English road. *The Rolling English Road.*

Churchill, Lord Randolph Spencer (1849–1894)
Ulster will fight; Ulster will be right. *Letter, 7th May* 1886.
All great men make mistakes. Napoleon forgot Blücher, I forgot Goschen.
Leaves from the notebooks of Lady Dorothy Nevill.

Churchill, Winston Leonard Spencer (1874–)

Never in the field of human conflict was so much owed by so many to so few.
Speech, House of Commons, 20th Aug. 1940.
We are waiting for the long-promised invasion. So are the fishes.
Radio broadcast to the French people, 21st Oct. 1940.

Cibber, Colley (1671–1757)
O say! What is that thing called Light,
Which I can ne'er enjoy. *The Blind Boy.*

Cicero, Marcus Tullius (106–43 B C)
O tempora, O mores!
(O what times, O what habits!) *In Catilinam.*
Oderint, dum metuant.
(Let them hate so long as they fear.)
Philippic, quoted from Accius.
Summum bonum. (The highest good.) *De Officiis.*

Coleridge, Samuel Taylor (1772–1834)
Water, water, every where,
And all the boards did shrink;
Water, water, every where.
Nor any drop to drink. *The Ancient Mariner.*
In Xanadu did Kubla Khan
A stately pleasure-dome decree:
Where Alph, the sacred river, ran
Through caverns measureless to man
Down to a sunless sea. *Kubla Khan.*

Colman, George (1762–1836)
Mum's the word. *Battle of Hexham.*

Congreve, William (1670–1729)
She lays it on with a trowel. *The Double Dealer.*

Coward, Noel (1899–)
Mad dogs and Englishmen go out in the mid-day sun;
The Japanese don't care to, the Chinese wouldn't dare to;
Hindus and Argentines sleep firmly from twelve to one,
But Englishmen detest a siesta. *Mad Dogs and Englishmen.*

Cowper, William (1731–1800)
England, with all thy faults, I love thee still –
My country! *The Task*, book 2, *The Timepiece.*

Cromwell, Oliver (1599–1658)
Not what they want but what is good for them. *Attr.*
Take away these baubles. *Attr.*

Dante Alighieri (1265–1321)
All hope abandon, ye who enter here.
Divine Comedy. Inferno.

De La Mare, Walter (1873–1956)
Some one came knocking
At my wee, small door;
Some one came knocking,
I'm sure – sure – sure. *Some One.*

Dickens, Charles (1812–1870)
Barkis is willin'. *David Copperfield.*
We are so very 'umble. *Uriah Heep, Ib.*
Accidents will occur in the best-regulated families.
Mr Micawber, Ib.
'If the law supposes that,' said Mr Bumble . . . 'the law is a ass – a idiot.' *Oliver Twist.*
It is a far, far better thing that I do, than I have ever done; it is a far, far better rest that I go to, than I have ever known. *Sydney Carton, A Tale of Two Cities.*

Disraeli, Benjamin, Earl of Beaconsfield (1804–1881)

Lord Salisbury and myself have brought you back peace – but a peace I hope with honour.
Speech, House of Commons, 16th July 1878.
Little things affect little minds. *Sybil.*

Donne, John (1571?–1631)
Death be not proud, though some have called thee
Mighty and dreadful, for, thou art not so,
For, those, whom thou think'st, thou dost overthrow,
Die not, poor death. *Holy Sonnets.*
And therefore never send to know for whom the *bell* tolls; It tolls for *thee. Devotions.*
No man is an *Island*, entire of it self. *Ib.*

Doyle, Sir Arthur Conan (1859–1930)
'Excellent!' I [Dr Watson] cried. 'Elementary,' said he [Holmes]. *Memoirs of Sherlock Holmes.*

Drake, Sir Francis (1540?–1596)
There is plenty of time to win this game, and to thrash the Spaniards too.

Dryden, John (1631–1700)

None but the brave deserves the fair. *Alexander's Feast.*
Of these the false Achitophel was first,
A name to all succeeding ages curst.
Absalom and Achitophel.
Fairest Isle, all isles excelling,
Seat of pleasures, and of loves;
Venus here will choose her dwelling,
And forsake her Cyprian groves.
King Arthur. Song of Venus.

Dumas, Alexandre (1803–1870)
Cherchons la femme.
(Let us look for the lady.) *Les Mohicans de Paris.*

Elizabeth I (1533–1603)
I know I have the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart and stomach of a king, and of a king of England too; and think foul scorn that Parma or Spain, or any prince of Europe, should dare to invade the borders of my realm. *Speech at Tilbury*, 1588.

Euclid (c. 300 B C)
Quod erat demonstrandum. (Which was to be proved.)

Emerson, Ralph Waldo (1803–1882)
When Nature has work to be done, she creates a genius to do it. *Method of Nature.*
Hitch your wagon to a star. *Society and Solitude.*
All mankind love a lover. *Essays. Love.*

Fielding, Henry (1707–1754)
I am as sober as a Judge. *Don Quixote in England.*

Fitzgerald, Edward (1809–1883)
Come, fill the Cup, and in the Fire of Spring
The Winter Garment of Repentance fling:
The Bird of Time has but a little way
To fly – and Lo! the Bird is on the Wing.
Omar Khayyam.
Here with a Loaf of Bread beneath the bough,
A Flask of Wine, a Book of Verse – and Thou
Beside me singing in the Wilderness –
And Wilderness is Paradise enow. *Ib.*

Ford, Henry (1863–1947)
History is bunk. *In the witness box.*

Franklin, Benjamin (1706–1790)
Remember, that time is money.
Advice to a Young Tradesman.
We must indeed all hang together, or, most assuredly, we shall all hang separately.
At signing of the Declaration of Independence.

George II (1683–1760)
Oh! he is mad, is he? Then I wish he would *bite* some other of my generals.
Reply to a complaint about General Wolfe.

George III (1738–1820)
Born and educated in this country I glory in the name of Briton. *Speech from the Throne.*

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He led his regiment from behind – he found it less exciting. [Of the Duke of Plaza Toro.] *The Gondoliers.*
Of that there is no manner of doubt –
No probable, possible shadow of doubt –
No possible doubt whatever. *Ib.*
The flowers that bloom in the spring, Tra la!
The Mikado.
The House of Peers, throughout the war,
Did nothing in particular,
And did it very well. *Iolanthe.*
Bow, bow, ye lower middle classes!
Bow, bow, ye tradesmen, bow, ye masses. *Ib.*
When constabulary duty's to be done,
The policeman's lot is not a happy one.
Pirates of Penzance.

Gladstone, William Ewart (1809–1898)

[The Turks] one and all, bag and baggage, shall, I hope, clear out from the province they have desolated and profaned. *Speech, House of Commons.*
My mission is to pacify Ireland.
On becoming Prime Minister.

Goldsmith, Oliver (1728–1774)
For he who fights and runs away
May live to fight another day.
Art of Poetry on a New Plan.
Man wants but little here below,
Nor wants that little long. *Edwin and Angelina.*

Gray, Thomas (1716–1771)
The social smile, the sympathetic tear.
Alliance of Education and Government.
The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea,
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.
Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard.
Full many a gem of purest ray serene,
The dark unfathom'd caves of ocean bear:
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air. *Ib.*
Far from the madding crowd's ignoble strife,
Their sober wishes never learn'd to stray;
Along the cool sequester'd vale of life
They kept the noiseless tenor of their way. *Ib.*
. . . where ignorance is bliss,
'Tis folly to be wise.
Ode on a Distant Prospect of Eton College.

Gregory I (540–604)
They answered that they were called Angles. 'It is well,' he said, 'for they have the faces of angels, and such should be the co-heirs of the angels in heaven.'
Bede, *Historia Ecclesiastica.*

Hobbes, Thomas (1588–1679)
. . . and the life of man, solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short. *Leviathan.*

Hoffman, Heinrich (1809–1874)
Augustus was a chubby lad;
Fat ruddy cheeks Augustus had:
And everybody saw with joy
The plump and hearty, healthy boy.
Struwwelpeter. Augustus.

Homer (c. 900 B C)
Smiling through her tears. *Iliad.*

Hopkins, Gerard Manley (1844–1889)
I caught this morning morning's minion, kingdom of daylight's dauphin, dapple-dawn-drawn Falcon.
The Windhover.

Housman, Alfred Edward (1859–1936)
When I was one-and-twenty
I heard a wise man say,
'Give crowns and pounds and guineas
But not your heart away.
Give pearls away and rubies
But keep your fancy free.'
But I was one-and-twenty,
No use to talk to me. *A Shropshire Lad.*
The lads that will die in their glory and never be old. *Ib.*

Johnson, Samuel (1709–1784)

The power of punishment is to silence, not to confute.
Sermons.
(When asked by a lady why he defined 'pastern' as the 'knee' of a horse, in his Dictionary.)
Ignorance, madam, pure ignorance. Boswell's *Life.*
Boswell: I do indeed come from Scotland, but I cannot help it.
Johnson: That, Sir, I find, is what a very great many of your countrymen cannot help. *Ib.*
No, Sir, when a man is tired of London, he is tired of life; for there is in London all that life can afford. *Ib.*
(Of the performance of a celebrated violinist.)
Difficult do you call it, Sir? I wish it were impossible.
Johnsonian Miscellanies.
Love is the wisdom of the fool and the folly of the wise. *Ib.*
When two Englishmen meet, their first talk is of the weather. *The Idler*, No. 1.

Jonson, Ben (1573–1637)
Drink to me only with thine eyes,
And I will pledge with mine. *The Forest*, ix. *To Celia.*

Keats, John (1795–1821)
Season of mists and mellow fruitfulness,
Close bosom-friend of the maturing sun. *To Autumn.*
Where are the songs of Spring? Ay, where are they? *Ib.*
A thing of beauty is a joy for ever. *Endymion.*
'Beauty is truth, truth beauty,' – that is all
Ye know on earth, and all ye need to know.
Ode on a Grecian Urn.

Kingsley, Charles (1819–1875)
When all the world is young, lad,
And all the trees are green;
And every goose a swan, lad,
And every lass a queen;
Then hey for boot and horse, lad,
And round the world away:
Young blood must have its course, lad,
And every dog his day.
Songs from The Water Babies.

Kipling, Rudyard (1865–1936)
Oh, East is East, and West is West, and never the twain shall meet. *The Ballad of East and West.*
The female of the species is more deadly than the male.
The Female of the Species.
You're a better man than I am, Gunga Din! *Gunga Din.*
Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,
Lest we forget – lest we forget! *Recessional.*
Take up the White Man's burden –
Send forth the best ye breed –
Go, bind your sons to exile
To serve your captives' need. *The White Man's Burden.*
Then ye returned to your trinkets; then ye contented your souls
With the flannelled fools at the wicket or the muddied oafs at the goals. *The Islanders.*

Lamb, Charles (1775–1834)
All, all are gone, the old familiar faces.
The Old Familiar Faces.

Landor, Walter Savage (1775–1864)
Ah, what avails the sceptred race!
Ah, what the form divine!
What every virtue, every grace!
Rose Aylmer, all were thine. *Rose Aylmer.*

Lear, Edward (1812–1888)
'How pleasant to know Mr Lear!'
Who has written such volumes of stuff!
Some think him ill-tempered and queer,
But a few think him pleasant enough.
Nonsense Songs, preface.
Far and few, far and few,
Are the lands where the Jumblies live;
Their heads are green, and their hands are blue,
And they went to sea in a Sieve. *Ib. The Jumblies.*
The Owl and the Pussy-Cat went to sea
In a beautiful pea-green boat.
They took some honey, and plenty of money,
Wrapped up in a five-pound note.
Ib. The Owl and the Pussy-Cat.

Lincoln, Abraham (1809–1865)
You can fool all the people some of the time, and some of the people all the time, but you can not fool all the people all of the time. *Attr. words in a speech at Clinton.*

Longfellow, Henry Wadsworth (1807–1882)
The shades of night were falling fast,
As through an Alpine village passed
A youth who bore, 'mid snow and ice,
A banner with the strange device,
Excelsior! *Excelsior.*
Under the spreading chestnut tree
The village smithy stands;
The smith, a mighty man is he,
With large and sinewy hands;
And the muscles of his brawny arms
Are strong as iron bands. *The Village Blacksmith.*
There was a little girl
Who had a little curl
Right in the middle of her forehead,
When she was good
She was very, very good,
But when she was bad she was horrid.
Machetta, *Home Life of Longfellow.*

Louis XIV (1638–1715)
L'État c'est moi. (I am the State.) *Attr.*

Lovelace, Richard (1618–1658)
Stone walls do not a prison make
Nor iron bars a cage. *To Althea, From Prison.*
I could not love thee (Dear) so much,
Lov'd I not honour more.
To Lucasta, Going to the Wars.

Macaulay, Baron, Thomas Babington Macaulay (1800–1859)
And even the ranks of Tuscany
Could scarce forbear to cheer.
Lays of Ancient Rome. Horatius.

Marie-Antoinette (1755–1793)
Let them eat cake.

Marlowe, Christopher (1564–1593)
Was this the face that launch'd a thousand ships,
And burnt the topless towers of Ilium? [Of Helen of Troy.]
Faustus.
I count religion but a childish toy,
And hold there is no sin but ignorance.
The Jew of Malta.

Marvell, Andrew (1621–1678)
But at my back I always hear
Time's wingèd chariot hurrying near.
To His Coy Mistress.